



AMERICA 8000 BCE

American Slavery Days....

1

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America: 8000 BCE

(Ancient Americans life, Culture, Civilization and Slavery)

By
Gajanan Khirao

INTRODUCTION

In Ancient America, people from different part of Africa -Asia were migrated to many region of America , They settled their life by hunting animals and developing societies between 2000 Bce to 8000 Bce ago.

After migration of human to america, They were hunting animals for living, that time farming were not known ,

They were living tighter to formed different societies , Some of known early Meso-american societies were Olmec ,Maya , Teotihuacan , Zapotec and Toltec . And Early south American societies were mocha and Inca .

it was believed that Columbus and his crew had been the first Europeans to make landfall in the Americas . However, they were not the first explorers from Europe to reach the Americas, having been preceded by the led by Leif Eriksonthe 11th century.

Columbus were came for in search gold , He and his sailors were slaved Paleo Indians (native american) ,And killed more than 4 million native american at the beginning .

Still there are considerable question for every person about ancient human life, culture and civilization like How human were born? Where they were migrated from? How were their life and culture developed?.

.Still there are lots of debate and studies are going on . But still are many interesting facts and stories of ancient America that many American do not know about their past .

Read this book to know :

Why native American were called “Paleo Indians “?

How were farming culture developed in ancient time ?

How was ancient Americans struggle?

Who brought Black African migration to America?

Why Columbus came to America?

How he slaved & killed native Americans and real truth about celebrating “ Columbus day “ ?

Thanks for showing interest in reading my book .



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First Edition: (Oct 2017)

DEDICATION

To My Parents and Wife,
You Mean the World to Me

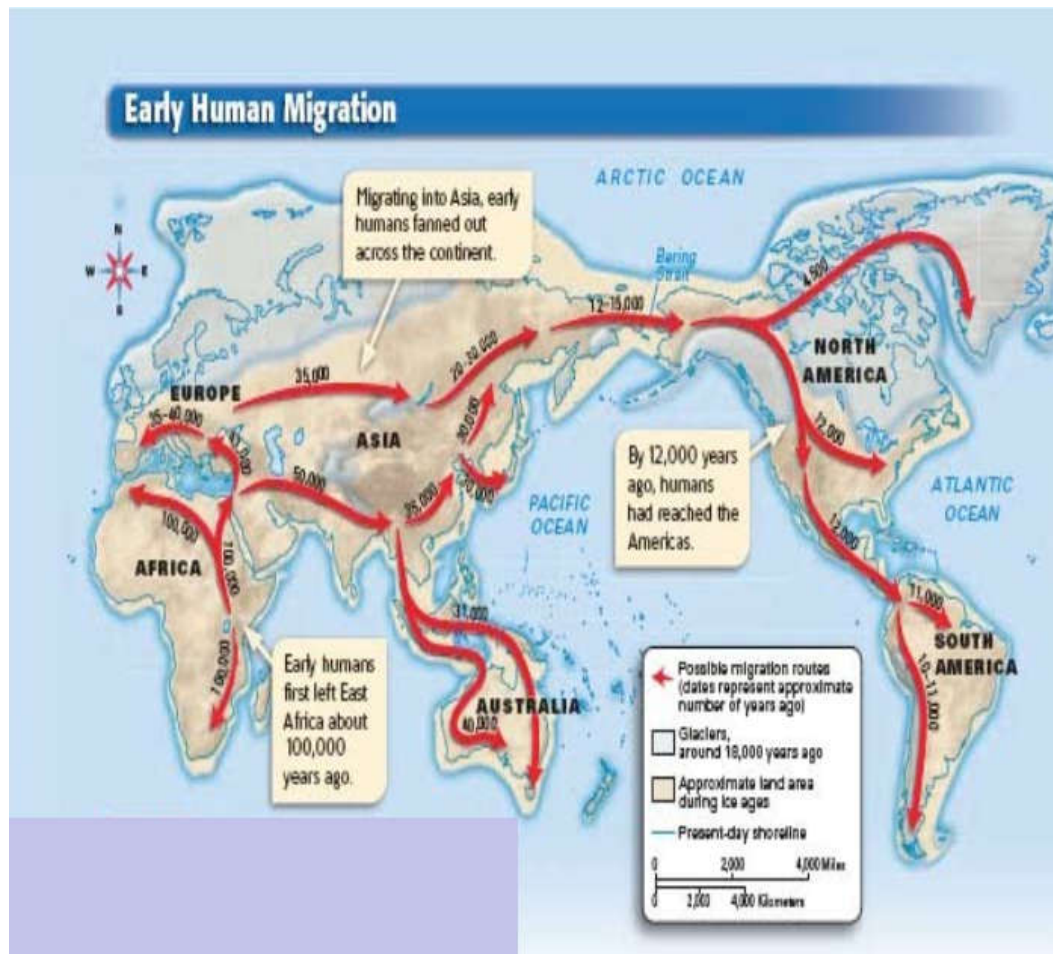
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I specially thanks to my teachers, friends and everyone who have supported and encouraged to write this book.

Thanks you,

HUMAN MIGRATION TO AMERICA

There is considerable debate as to how the first humans, often called Paleo-Indians, arrived in the Americas. The most commonly accepted theory is that under-gatherer tribes from the Kamchatka peninsula in Siberia crossed the present-day Bering Strait by means of a land bridge, known as Beringia, during the most recent Ice Age. Their journey probably was in search of food, water and hunting, presumably from this point, they wandered throughout North and South America and populated it. Many scholars disagree. Some argue that the Indians may have migrated from Africa or Asia. The prevailing winds and currents of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans make this quite possible





It is indeed likely that the several ethnic groups who have traditionally (and incorrectly) been classified simply as "Indians" have diverse origins. It is entirely possible that the early peoples of Meso-America and South America originated from different areas and at different times than the Indians of North America. According to Khirao's theory of Ancient American migration at ancient times, humans were not having one point of location for living; they changed their place time to time due to climate change and for searching food from place to place so many people from other parts of the world mainly from Indian origin migrated to America. The exact date of the arrival of the first peoples in the Americas is also a subject of intense scholarly debate. There is no question that people were living in North America, including in the area of present-day South Carolina, as early as 10,000 B.C.E. Some archaeological evidence points to settlement as early as 50,000 B.C.E., but this evidence is somewhat suspect.

Certain facts about the early civilizations of the Americas are indisputable:

They adopted Agriculture more than 8,000 years ago. As a result, they had a sedentary life style, built permanent settlements. Evidence of a sedentary lifestyle and developed civilization in America actually predates similar situations in Western Europe. Were made sedentary by agriculture. There was an adequate supply of meat, vegetables, water, so no longer migratory; as a result, population grew. Populations do not grow quickly in migratory societies; Indian population did grow. A growing community must construct physical, economic structures: Indians had this; had division of labor; gender roles 8,000 years ago. By 3,000 years ago, they had a highly developed civilization. By 1492 (the year Columbus landed), U.S. and Canada had 4 million residents.



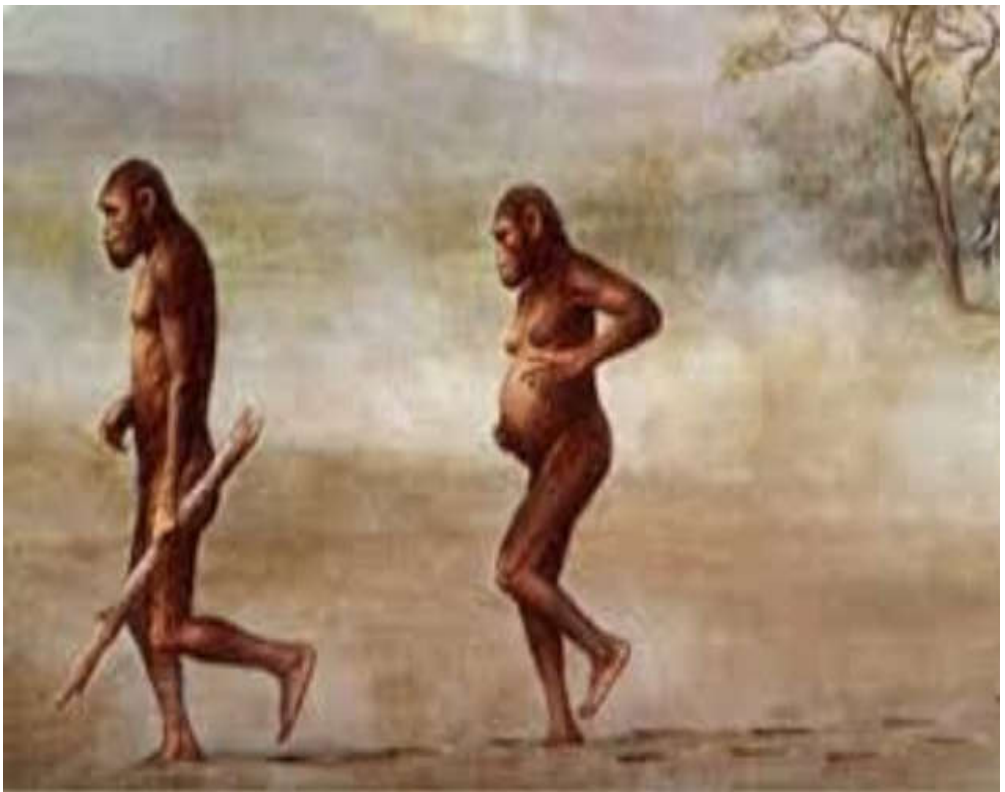
Most Indians preferred climates in warmer subtropical areas. Southern California, Central America, northern South America had over 40 million Indians. There was a tremendous level of development. Cortez wrote in his dairy in 1519 that the Aztec city of Technocticlan (under present day Mexico City) had a complex irrigation system based on a series of canals and a grid system. Houses, etc. were strategically located along the grid. Even he recognized that this far exceeded the development and lifestyle of big cities in Europe.



By 15th Century, the Incas of Peru were performing brain surgery; evidence indicates the practice dated back 1,000 years. Mayas had two calendars; one based on 185 days; another quite close to our modern calendar. They also had the technology to drill tiny holes in stone; something American technicians learned only within the last 100 years. Anasazi of Four Corners region had community developed 12,000 years ago with civilization more advanced than anything that existed in Europe. One subdivision had over 800 apartments; plus a network of roads that were straight. Also evidence of large figures carved into surface of earth; can only see entire image from high altitude.



CULTURE OF ANCIENT AMERICA



The Archaic Cultures:

By about 9000 B.C. small bands of hunters were widely dispersed over the American continents. Changes in climate with the ending of the last Ice Age may lay behind changes in diet and ways of life. The disappearance of large game animals, whatever the cause, was probably met with the less-specialized hunting of smaller game, fishing, and an increased dependence on gathering wild fruits and other plant foods. The culture of these early populations is usually called the archaic period. It represented an adaptation to the changing environment and possibilities of subsistence.

People made baskets and used stone grinding tools to prepare the roots and plants they collected for food. They used a wide range of animals and plants. As the seacoasts. Stabilized between 5000 and 4000 B.C. Populations concentrated around lagoons and river mouths to exploit fish and shellfish. Enormous debris mounds or shell middens found in Chile and Tierra del Fuego indicate long human dependence on these maritime resources. In Brazil, the middens indicate intensive use of these resources and permanent occupation sites

The Northeastern Woodlands of North America is a land of heavily forested rolling hills and rounded mountains, salt marshes of waving grass, calm lakes, tumbling brooks, surf-beaten beaches, and rocky coves. This culture area stretches west from the Atlantic coast to the Mississippi River, and from Virginia in the south to New Brunswick in the north.

The era from earliest habitation to about 8000 BCE is called the Early Paleo-Indian Period by some archaeologists. The ice sheets that once covered the northern part of the continent began their withdrawal from the Northeast about 15,000 BCE. Human habitation in the area began when the ice sheet still covered much of the area. Paleo-Indian groups near the ice sheets targeted large game, particularly caribou, while groups in the Woodlands to the south were more generalized foragers, exploiting a wide range of animals and plant species.” The overall data seems to suggest that there was initial settlement along major rivers at sites where there was high quality stone for making tools. According to David Anderson: “These localities are thought to reflect areas of initial extended settlement, staging areas from which the colonization of the larger region proceeded.



At present, the earliest evidence of human occupation in the Northeast comes from the Cactus Hill site on the east bank of the Nottoway River in southeastern Virginia. The site is about 13 miles east of the Fall Zone. Archaeologists Dennis Stanford and Bruce Bradley, in their somewhat controversial book *Atlantic Ice: The Origins of America's Clovis Culture*, "Sometime between 20,100 and 22,600 years ago, people began to use the sand ridge as a temporary campsite."

In southwestern Pennsylvania, people were using the Meadowcroft Rockshelter 17, 600 BCE, and a time when the Laurentide ice sheet was only 50 miles away. The earliest people in the Northeast appear to have been hunting and gathering people who were living in small, highly mobile bands. They often used fluted bifacial projectile points (most likely spear points) which had a rough resemblance to the famous Clovis points



Some archaeologists characterize the earliest inhabitants of the region as using “Clovis-like” points and associated stone tools. Writing in the *Handbook of North American Indians*, Robert Funk reports: “The fluted-point hunters probably entered the Northeast from the south and west following the glacial retreat. “The stone tools used at this site were made from a poor quality stone which is not suited for fine flint knapping. At this time, the good stone in central Wisconsin was still buried under the ice sheets.

With regard to the people at this site, archaeologist Alice Beck Kehoe writes in her book *Before the European Invasions*: They were intrepid pioneers indeed, cutting up woolly mammoths within a few days’ walk of ice fields stretching north beyond the horizon.” At about this same time, Indian people hunted and butchered a Jefferson’s Ground Sloth in Ohio. By about 11,000 BCE, Indian people occupied a cave in what is now Ohio.



They were using stone tools, including scrapers and graters. The animals hunted by these people included the short-faced bear (*Arctodus simus*), a giant, long-legged omnivore; stag moose (*Cervalces Scotti*), an animal that resembled modern moose except for its forked antlers; giant beaver, (*Castoroides ohioensis*), an animal that reached up to nine feet in length; flat-headed peccary, (*Platygonus compressus*), the wide-ranging American pig of the Pleistocene; and caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*).

By 10,500 BCE Indian people called Early Hunters by archaeologists were settling in the tundra adjoining the southern edge of the Wisconsin ice sheet. As the ice withdrew, spruce woodlands appeared which were utilized by these people. At about this same time, the Dutchess Quarry Cave in what is now New York was being used for making fluted points. The people at this site were hunting caribou.

About 10,000 BCE Indian people began to move into New England. Archaeologist Dena Dincauze, in her chapter in Pequot's in Southern New England: The Fall and Rise of an American Indian Nation, calls these people "Pioneers" and writes: "Clad in their caribou-skin clothing, carrying infants and household goods and thrusting spears with elegantly shaped points of colorful stone, these are the people who first gave names to the landscape, who explained its special areas and vistas in terms of their own cosmology, and who first explored and exploited its riches for human purposes."

At about this same time, Indian people were now living in New Jersey. In his book *Beneath the Surface: The Story of Archaeology in New Jersey*, archaeologist R. Alan Mounier writes: “Their signature artifact—the fluted point—is among the most recognizable of relics, owing to its graceful shape, its exquisite workmanship, and its celebrity, arising from its relative antiquity.”

About 9500 BCE Indian people established a hunting camp at the Conover Site in Virginia. They were using a variety of chert tools, including fluted projectile points, bifaces, and unifacial tools.

By 9300 BCE, Indian people began moving up the Champlain and Connecticut Valleys into the state of Vermont. Part of their economy was based on hunting caribou. They may have also exploited the marine resources of the Champlain Sea. At about this same time in New Hampshire, Indian people occupied the Colebrook. They were using a type of spear point which archaeologists call Michaud/Neponset.



By 9000 BCE, Indian people were occupying the Thunderbird site the South Fork of the Shenandoah River in present-day Virginia. The occupants were making and using Clovis-type points. Thunderbird was a base camp and was associated with a nearby quarry. According to Ian Shaw and Robert Jameson in Dictionary of Archaeology: "An important activity was the refurbishing of toolkits with new flaked stone tools manufactured from jasper collected from a nearby quarry."

By 8900 BCE, Indian people occupied Sheriden Cave in present-day Ohio. In addition to stone tools (identified as Clovis-like), they were also using bone tools. By 8800 BCE, Indian hunters using Clovis technology were hunting mastodons at the Hiscock site in present-day New York. By 8600 BCE, the period which archaeologists call the Bull Brook phase in present-day Massachusetts, begins. With regard to material culture, the Indian people at this time were using fluted points.

About 8500 BCE, Indian people established a seasonal site at Vail in present-day Maine for killing caribou. The caribou were killed along a sandy patch of ground near the river and then the animals were processed for hide, meat, and marrow. The hunters maintained their camp across the river from the kill site. With regard to their tool kit, hunters were using fluted points with deep, concave bases which are similar to those used by the people at the Debert site Nova Scotia. Pennsylvania



While the nearest suitable source for stone for making tools is about 25 kilometers away, the hunters and food processors were using stone tools which come from more distant quarries in Vermont, New York, and The people living at the Vail site were using tents which measured about 4.5 by 6 meters (approximately 15 by 20 feet). About 8300 BCE, a large group of Indian people established a seasonal camp near present-day Traverse City, Michigan. They were using stone tools which were made from stone from the Saginaw Bay area, 100 miles away.

OLDEST CIVILIZATION OF AMERICA

Early Societies of Mesoamerica:

1] Olmec

2] Maya

3] Teotihuacan

4] Zapotec

5] Toltec

Early Societies of Southamerica

1] Moche

2] Inca

Traditionally, archeologists have seen two major cultural hearths in the Americas: Mesoamerica and the Peruvian orbit, including the coastal areas of Ecuador and Peru and the Andean highlands. In these two areas, processes of development, based on intensive agriculture and including most of the features usually associated with Old World civilizations, could be seen.

In both areas a number of cycles of cultural advance and, sometimes, of empire-building took place long before the rise of the Incas and Aztecs, who were in power when the Europeans arrived. Artistic styles flourished and declined, and states rose and fell over thousands of years.

Some scholars have suggested that the area between these cultural hearths, including present-day Panama and Colombia, also contained a number of advanced societies with considerable cultural achievements (especially in metallurgy and gold working) that differed only in that they did not build large stone buildings.

Thus the whole region from central Mexico southward to Chile formed a continuous nucleus of American civilizations. On the peripheries of this nucleus, due to influence and imitation, other Indian peoples adopted features characteristic of the civilizations.

Early Societies of Mesoamerica:

I] Olmec

(Meaning "rubber people," a modern term, since their proper name is unknown) were the earliest civilization in Central America, possibly the earliest civilization in the Americas. Their civilization developed sometime between 1200 and 1000 B.C.E in the Gulf Coast region of southern Mexico, and later expanded into Guatemala.

They were an agricultural people who grew beans, chili peppers, avocados, squash and gourds. By 4000 B.C.E. they had begun the cultivation of maize (commonly known in the U.S. today as "corn.")

Tomatoes were cultivated as early as 3000 B.C.E. Crop production was made possible by an irrigation system that was built through the city. Their crops were frequently fertilized with guano, droppings from bats or seagulls. Crops were supplemented by fishing and hunting, but they also domesticated turkeys and small dogs who did not bark.

Both were raised for food. Because larger animals in the area could not be domesticated, they had no work animals. All fields were prepared by hand and trade goods carried on the backs of porters. The Olmec constructed elaborate ceremonial centers with pyramids, temples, and palaces near agricultural villages.



Olmec mask

They were not cities in the strict sense of the word; but were rather centers of worship, occupied primarily by the ruling elite, priests, and the necessary artisans and craftsmen to maintain the structures. Although large numbers of people were in the centers for special worship occasions; they returned to their homes at the end of business.

They developed a complex calendar and hieroglyphic writing system, and had unique art creations. The Olmecs were most notable for their colossal head art. The largest existing stone head is almost ten feet tall, and weighs over twenty tons. Scholars have theorized that the heads are modeled after their rulers. Most of the colossal heads were decapitated or destroyed in some way, which has led researchers to speculate that the Olmecs did this themselves after a ruler died as a sacrifice to the gods or animal spirits.

The facial features of the heads illustrate people with slanted eyes and large lips which has caused some speculation as to whether the Olmecs were of African or Asian descent. The Olmec also constructed stone sculptures and monumental buildings which would have required the labor of hundreds of thousands of workers.

The Olmecs were apparently the first Mesoamerican people to fathom the concept of zero, develop a calendar, and create a hieroglyphic writing system. These intellectual achievements, along with Olmec myths and rituals, were influential in the subsequent Maya, Zapotec, Mixtec and Aztec cultures



Olmec society appears to have been authoritarian. All indications are that commoners delivered a portion of their harvests for the maintenance of the elite who lived in the ceremonial centers and provided labor for large scale construction projects. Trade was also important to the Olmec, primarily with other people of Mesoamerica.

They produced large numbers of decorative objects from jade, which they would of necessity have imported as there were no local supplies of the substance. They also imported obsidian, a volcanic glass, which they used for forming knives, axes, and sharp cutting instruments. As with many other early American cultures, the Olmec disappeared. The last evidence of them appears c. 400 B.C.E.

There is some evidence that they systematically destroyed several of their ceremonial centers, perhaps because of civil conflict. It is

possible that they blended in with other Indian groups who may have conquered them.

Their successors built the first great city in the Americas, known as Teotihuacan, which was a center of trade and worship. Those who followed also suffered setbacks as a result of regional wars and conflict with migrating tribes. They did, however, lay the basis, for a great civilization beginning about 400 C.E. (800 years after the disappearance of the Olmecs): the Maya.

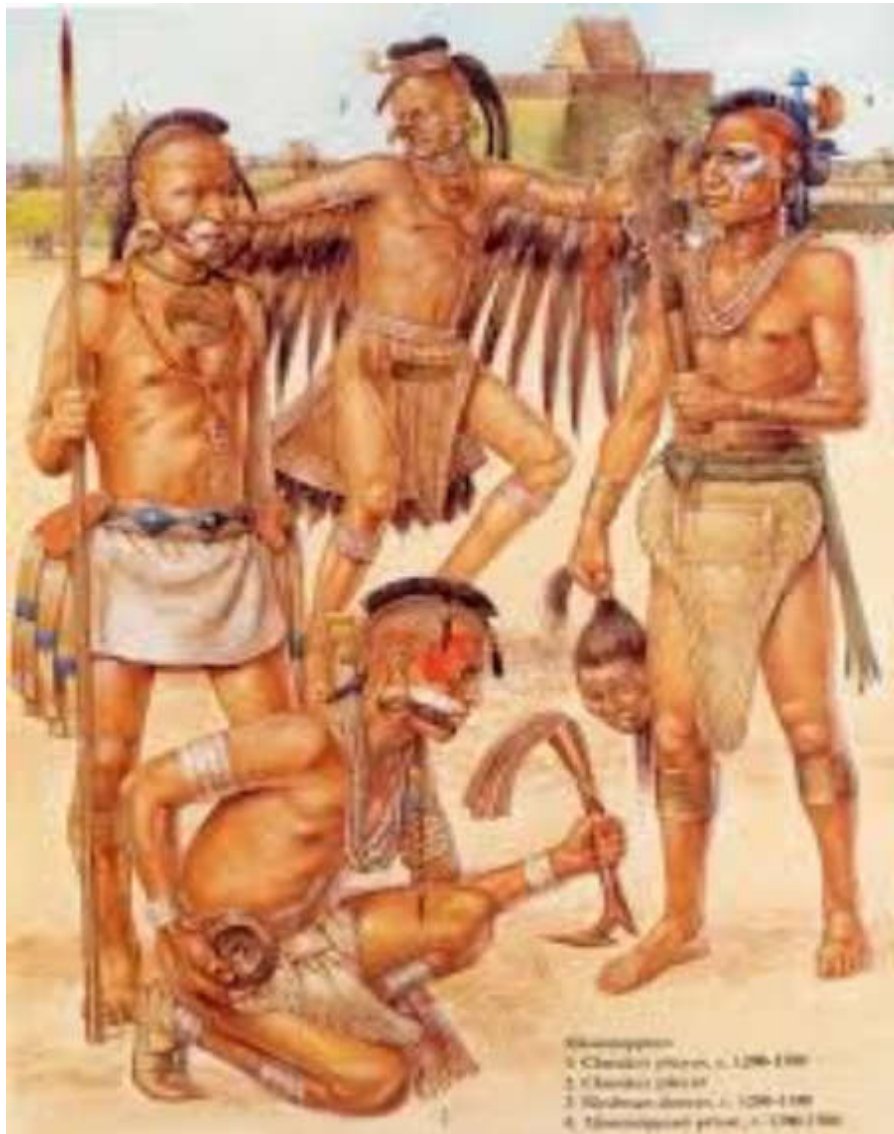


2] Maya

The ancient Maya civilization occupied the eastern third of Mesoamerica, primarily the Yucatan Peninsula in Mexico, and appeared about the third century, B.C.E. Contrary to popular belief, the Mayan civilization was not one unified empire, but rather a multitude of separate entities with a common cultural background. Similar to the Greeks, they were religiously and artistically a nation, but politically sovereign states. As many as twenty such states existed on the Yucatan Peninsula.

They did, however, erect cities with pyramids and other public buildings. Their cities were often centers of trade with wide streets for easy public access. Among the most important of their cities was Tikal, erected c. 600 –800 B.C.E, which had a population of almost forty thousand. Mayan kings often had names with menacing appeal, such as Curl Snout, Smoking Frog, and Stormy Sky.

Names which were associated with the jaguar, the most dangerous animal in the area, were especially popular. The Maya had a developed system of agriculture based on a "slash and burn" system, whereby trees were burned away, and holes for planting dug with stone tools. When the soil was exhausted, they moved on to new areas; and the old area soon grew scrub brush, etc. Which was ideal vegetation for game animals.



Among their other agricultural products were maize, cotton, and cacao, from which chocolate is made. Mayan nobles consumed a chocolate drink made by mixing the powdered beans into water. Cacao beans were so valuable that they were used as money. The Maya kingdoms fought each other almost constantly.

Warfare often resulted in the destruction of ceremonial centers and widespread bloodshed; however their primary purpose in fighting was to capture enemies in hand to hand combat who were brought back as human trophies. The captured soldiers were stripped of their dress and symbols of rank, and might be kept alive for years. More often, they were ritually tortured and sacrificed on ceremonial occasions.

By the year 900 C.E. the Mayan kingdom of Chichén Its was able to organize a loose empire that brought political stability to the region. Maya society included large numbers of priests who developed an elaborate system of hieroglyphic writing to record the transition of power through the generations.

Maya writing was composed of recorded inscriptions on stone and wood and used within architecture. The priests, who followed the ruling class in importance, were instrumental in the recordings of history through the hieroglyphs.



The two classes were closely linked and held a monopoly on learning, including writing. More information on Mayan hieroglyphs, including information on translation, etc. can be found at [Mayan Hieroglyphic Syllabary and Glyphs](#) .To be a king, one must have taken a captive in a war and that person was then used as the victim in his accession ceremony.

This ritual was the most important of a king's life as it was the point at which he became head of the lineage and leader of the city. The religious explanation that upheld the institution of kingship asserted that Maya rulers were necessary for continuance of the Universe.

When an heir was born, the king performed a blood sacrifice by drawing blood from his own body as an offering to his ancestors. There were several degrees of social stratification among the Maya



At the top of the social pyramid were the kings and ruling families. There was a nobility which owned most of the land and in which membership was by birth only. Maya merchants were members of the ruling and noble classes. Trade was normally in animal skins, cacao beans and works of art.

There were also professional architects, sculptors, and artisans. At the bottom of the social pyramid were peasants and slaves who performed all agricultural work and provided the hard labor needed for construction.

By using their mathematical skills, which included a digit for the number zero, they calculated the length of a solar year to be 365.242 days—seventeen seconds shorter than modern day calculations. Their calendar was the most elaborate of ancient America. It interwove a solar year of 365 days with a ritual year of 260 days.

The former regulated agricultural practices; the latter was used for ritual practices. It was divided into twenty "months" each consisting of twenty days. The two calendars were so intricately connected that they only worked through all possible combinations of days every fifty two years.

The positions of the calendars were indications of the good or bad events that could be expected that day. Among the most important of these sacrifices was the shedding of human blood which the Maya believed would prompt the Gods to send water for crops.

Bloodletting often involved war captives; who had their bodies lacerated or the tips of their fingers cut off to cause blood to flow copiously, after which the victim was decapitated. Sacrifice of enemies was not enough, however.



The Maya also seemed to go in for shaping their children's skulls: They liked to flatten them (although this may have simply been the inadvertent result of strapping babies to cradle boards) or squeeze them into a cone. Some scholars have speculated that the conehead effect was the result of trying to approximate the shape of an ear of corn.

The Maya filed their teeth, sometimes into a T shape and sometimes to a point. They also inlaid their teeth with small, round plaques of jade or pyrite. According to Coe, young men customarily painted themselves black until marriage and later engaged in ritual tattooing and scarring.

The Maya also had an interesting game of ball that was originally played by two men, but later by teams. The object was to score points by propelling a ball made of baked rubber through a ring without using their hands.



The ball was roughly eight inches in diameter and was very heavy. . A blow could cause a concussion. Players had to maneuver the ball using their feet, legs, hips, torso, shoulders, or elbows. It was extremely popular at Maya ceremonial centers where it was played on stone-paved courts. Oftentimes spectators laid bets on the outcome of the game.

At times, high ranking captives were forced to participate in the game; and members of the losing team were tortured and executed at its conclusion. Some ball courts sported the skulls of losing players.

The civilization was abandoned c. 800 C.E. and its major city collapsed. Descendants of the Maya still live in Mexico. They tend to be short people with flattened foreheads.



3] Teotihuacan

Teotihuacan was a large agricultural village in the valley of Mexico established c. 500 B.C.E. The geography of the area at that time provided several large lakes which provided large numbers of fish and waterfowl as well as a system of irrigation.

The village grew rapidly into a large city with a population of approximately 50,000 by the year 100 C.E. It had two prominent landmarks: the pyramids of the sun and of the moon. The Pyramid of the Sun is the largest single structure in Mesoamerica; it occupies almost as much space as the giant Cheops Pyramid of Egypt, but is only half as tall.



By 600 C.E. the city housed over 200,000 people. It had large numbers of temples, palaces, neighborhoods with small apartments, markets and workshops. The people of the city shared some cultural elements with the Olmecs. They engaged in the ball game of the Olmecs, adapted the Olmec calendar to their own use, and expanded the Olmec alphabet into a complete system of writing.

They apparently worshiped an earth god and a Rain god; and almost certainly engaged in human sacrifice. Evidence indicates that the city was a Theocracy with priests considered crucial to the survival of the city. They kept the calendar and ensured that planting and harvesting took place at the right time



There was little sign of military organization for many years; as the city appeared to extend its influence primarily by means of trade. However, it apparently fell under attack around 650 C.E. and entered a period of decline. About 750 C.E. the city was attacked by an invading army and destroyed. After the attack, it was deserted and fell into ruin.





4] Zapotec

The Zapotec were agricultural people whose civilization thrived from 800 B.C.E. until almost 1600 C.E. They believed themselves to have been descended from jaguars and inanimate objects such as rocks and trees. They build a city known as Monte Alban from which they conducted practiced religious rites, including, on occasion, human sacrifice. Their primary object of worship were their ancestors.



They believed in an underworld which was a paradise to where their ancestors continued to live after departing earthly life. Their society was divided into three distinct social groups: the priests, rulers, and everyone else. These three groups were united only within the limits of the city of Monte Alban.



5] Toltec

Nomadic people from northern Mexico took advantage of the power vacuum created by the collapse of the Mayan civilization; including the Toltec's, who established a capital city known as Tula c. 968 C.E. Although they quickly adapted to a sedentary lifestyle of those who preceded them, they also introduced a strongly militaristic element, including human sacrifice and the worship of the god, Quetzalcoatl.

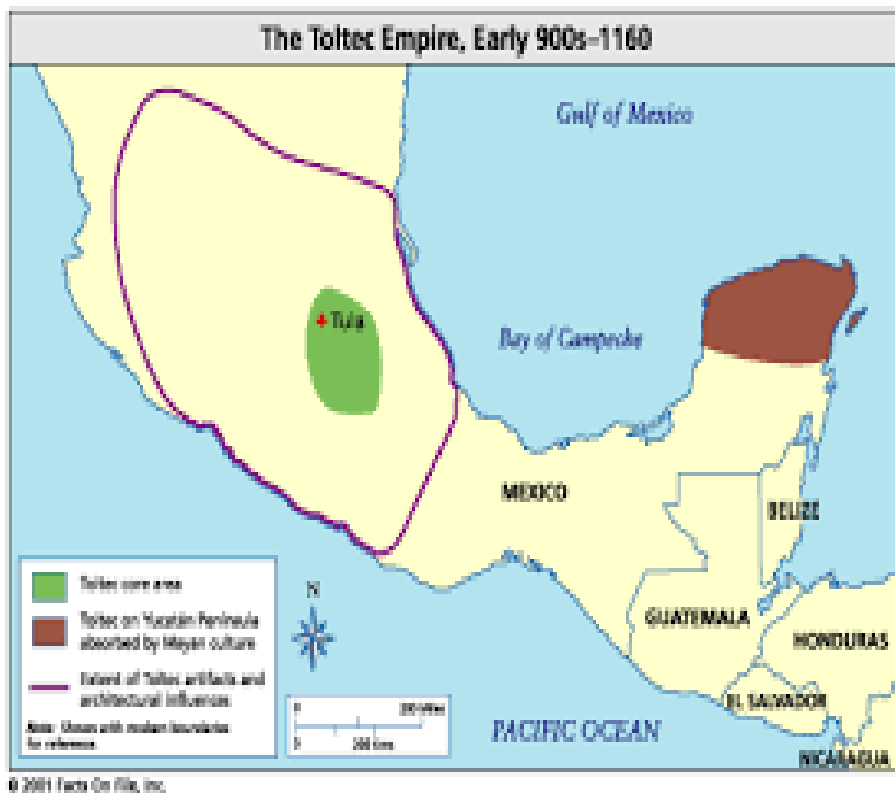


There is some evidence that these people traded and

communicated with other nations as far North as the Hopewell civilization in the upper Mississippi Valley of North America. The civilization was destroyed and its capital of Tula sacked in 1150 by another warlike nomadic tribe, the Aztecs



In recent decades the historicist position has fallen out of favor for a more critical and interpretive approach to the history of the Aztec mythical accounts based on the original approach of Brinton. This approach applies a different understanding of the word Toltec to the interpretation of the Aztec sources, interpreting it as largely a mythical and philosophical construct by either the Aztecs or Mesoamericans generally that served to symbolize the might and sophistication of several civilizations during the Mesoamerican Post classic period.



Early Societies of South America

Early South American societies developed in the Andes Mountain regions, contemporaneously with the Mesoamerican societies, but were largely independent of each other

I] Moche :

The Moche Civilization flourished in the Andes Mountain chain of Peru from 100 to 700 C.E. They had a highly developed irrigation system which allowed them to transport water from various rivers to dry areas, and enabled them to grow a number of crops, including cotton and peanuts.

They often fertilized their crops with guano, (droppings from sea gulls and/or bats). Aside from agriculture, they developed very sophisticated pottery and ceramics, much of which was of a highly erotic nature.





2] Inca

The Inca are the most well-known of all the Peruvian Indian cultures. They began to expand their influence in the twelfth century and in the early sixteenth century, they exercised control over more territory than any other people had done in South American history. The empire consisted of over one million individuals, spanning a territory stretching from Ecuador to northern Chile.

Unlike the military empires in Central America, the Incas ruled by proxy. After conquering a people, they would incorporate local rulers into their imperial system, generously reward anyone who fought for them, and treated well all those conquered people who cooperated. There were requirements imposed on conquered People, however. Rulers of subordinate territories were required to send heirs or representatives to the Incan capital.

In reality, the Inca "Empire," as the invading Spanish called it, was not really an empire. It was more of a confederation of tribes with a single people, the Incas, more or less in control. Each of these tribes was ruled independently by a council of elders; the tribe as a whole gave its allegiance to the ruler, or "Inca." The "Inca" was divine; he was the descendant of the sun-god. The central god of the Incan religion was the sun-god, the only god that had temples built for him.



The sun-god was the father of the royal family. There were many gods among the Incas, but the sun-god outshone them all. The Incas also believed that there was a heaven, a hell, and a resurrection of the body after death. The Incas built an astonishing network of roads and terraced farmlands throughout the Andes.

Their system of terraced fields and farms was so successful that more land was under cultivation at the time of contact with the Spanish than during the present day. The Incas cultivated corn and cotton, as well as potatoes, and raised llama and alpaca for food and for labor. Wool from these animals was woven into colorful textiles.



They learned to make weapons and tools from copper and

bronze, and also fashioned decorative objects from gold and silver. The latter proved to be their undoing. When the invading Spanish noticed their gold and silver objects, they determined to take as much of it by whatever means possible. The mistreatment of the Inca by the Spanish is one of the saddest stories in North American History.



AGRICULTURAL SYSTEM OF ANCIENT AMERICA



The move toward agriculture was a natural extension of a process in which a wide range of animal and plant resources

was used with less dependence on the hunting of big game. Agriculture may thus have been brought about first by women, since in many simple hunting societies women are responsible for gathering plant foods.

There is early evidence from Guitarrero caves in highland Peru of cultivation as early as 7000 B.C., and by 5000 B.C. plant domestication had taken place in a number of regions in the Americas. The introduction of agriculture, the American Version of the Neolithic revolution, was not so complete and drastic a change as we once thought, and many peoples continued to practice hunting and gathering along with some cultivation.

In many places agriculturalists and hunter-gatherers eventually lived in close contact with each other as a result of different adaptations to environments and opportunities and of social choices. And the regimentation of life it could represent.

The movement from hunting to agriculture did not always happen. In a particularly rich environment on the seacoast or where game was plentiful, peoples might avoid agriculture eventually, however, agriculture was practiced all over the Americas from the woodlands of eastern

North America to the tropical forests of the Amazon basin. American Indians eventually cultivated over 100 different crops from peppers, squash, and tomatoes to amaranth and quinoa. Some crops, particularly maize, potatoes, and manioc, became essential sources of food to dense populations.

As in Asia earlier, agriculture imposed restrictions on human

behavior and the patterns of human action; as American societies depended increasingly on agriculture, a series of processes were sometimes set in motion that resulted in complex social, economic, and political systems.

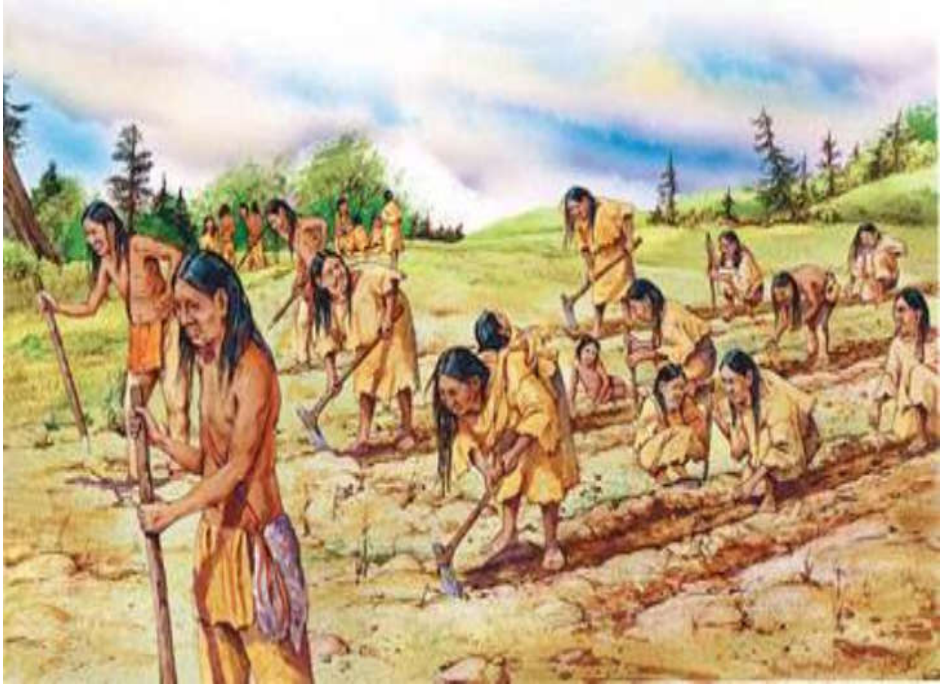
Maize, Manioc, and Potatoes:

By about 4000 B.C. the domestication of maize had taken place in central Mexico and along with it came the cultivation of peppers, squash, and beans.

These expanded and more dependable food resources resulted in population growth (although some scholars argue that the growth of populations may have stimulated the search for new food sources and the domestication of plants). The cultivation of maize spread far and wide. .

By 2000 B.C. it was grown in Peru, along with the potato and other crops native to that region. Maize spread northward to the present southern United States, and by about A.D. 1000 it was grown by groups such as the Iroquois in Canada. In the tropical forests of the Orinoco and Amazon basins, people had developed an agriculture based on varieties of manioc or cassava, a root that could be made into a flour. The introduction of maize in areas that had depended only on manioc probably resulted in population growth and, with it, the rise of more complex societies.

While varieties of potatoes were the staple in highland South



America, and manioc was the principal crop of peoples of the lowlands of South America and the islands of the Caribbean, maize cultivation spread in all directions and was often practiced in those areas in conjunction with other staples. In Mesoamerica, the area from north central Mexico to Nicaragua, maize dominated the diet of agricultural peoples. It seems clear that, in most cases, agriculture is a major feature in determining the ability of societies to achieve the surplus production and complexity needed for those elements usually associated with civilization.

COLUMBUS ERA & HIS SLAVERY IN AMERICA

Christopher Columbus was an Italian explorer, navigator, and colonizer. Born in the Republic of Genoa, under the auspices of the Catholic Monarchs of Spain he completed four voyages across the Atlantic Ocean. In 1492, a based

transatlantic maritime expedition led by Christopher Columbus encountered the Americas, a continent which was previously unknown in Europe, leading to the colonization of the Americas.



For a very long time, it was believed that Columbus and his crew had been the first Europeans to make landfall in the

Americas. However, they were not the first explorers from Europe to reach the Americas, having been preceded by the led by Leif Erikson the 11th century; Columbus's voyages led to the first ongoing European contact with the Americas, inaugurating a period of, and has lasted several centuries.



1494 Columbus landed at Jamaica and met the Arawak Indians. The Arawak used Jamaican pimento (allspice) to season and smoke meat (usually pigs), the foundation upon

which Jamaican Jerk developed



At the time of both the Erikson and Columbus voyages, the Americas were inhabited by the Indigenous Americans, the descendants of Paleo-Indians who crossed the Bering Strait, at that time a land bridge, to North America beginning around

20,000 years ago. Columbus's voyages led to the widespread knowledge that a new continent existed west of Europe and east of Asia. This breakthrough in geographical science led to the exploration and colonization of the New World by Spain and other European sea powers, and is sometimes cited as the start of the modern era. **Taino Indians greeting Columbus**



In 1492 Columbus' ships appeared off the coast of San Salvador. The Taino Indians greeted Columbus with unimaginable hospitality. Columbus reported to his queen: "So tractable, so peaceable, are these people that I swear to your

Majesties there is not in the world a better nation.

They love their neighbors as themselves, and their discourse is ever sweet and gentle, and accompanied with a smile; And though it is true that they are naked, yet their manners are decorous and praiseworthy." Columbus soon lost sight of the generosity and kindness of the Taino people.

On April 17, 1492, before his first voyage to the Americas, Columbus negotiated a business contract with King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain, entitling him to 10% of all profits.

In this contract, the Spanish sovereigns agreed: "that of all and every kind of merchandise, whether pearls, precious stones, gold, silver, spices, and other objects and merchandise whatsoever, of whatever kind, name and sort, which may be bought, bartered, discovered, acquired and obtained within the limits of the said Admiralty,

Your Highnesses grant from now henceforth to the said Don Cristóbal [Christopher Columbus] ... the tenth part of the whole, after deducting all the expenses which may be incurred therein."



The abuse of Native Americans by Spaniards An engraving from *Americae partes*

Nonetheless, the Pope's declaration ultimately had dire consequences for native inhabitants of the Americas. Beginning in 1514 Spanish conquerors adopted "the Requirement," an ultimatum in which Indians were forced to accept "the Church as the Ruler and Superior of the whole world" or face persecution. If Indians did not immediately comply, the Requirement warned them:

"We shall take you and your wives and your children, and shall make slaves of them, and as such shall sell and dispose of them as their Highnesses may command; And we shall take away your goods, and shall do all the harm and damage that we can."

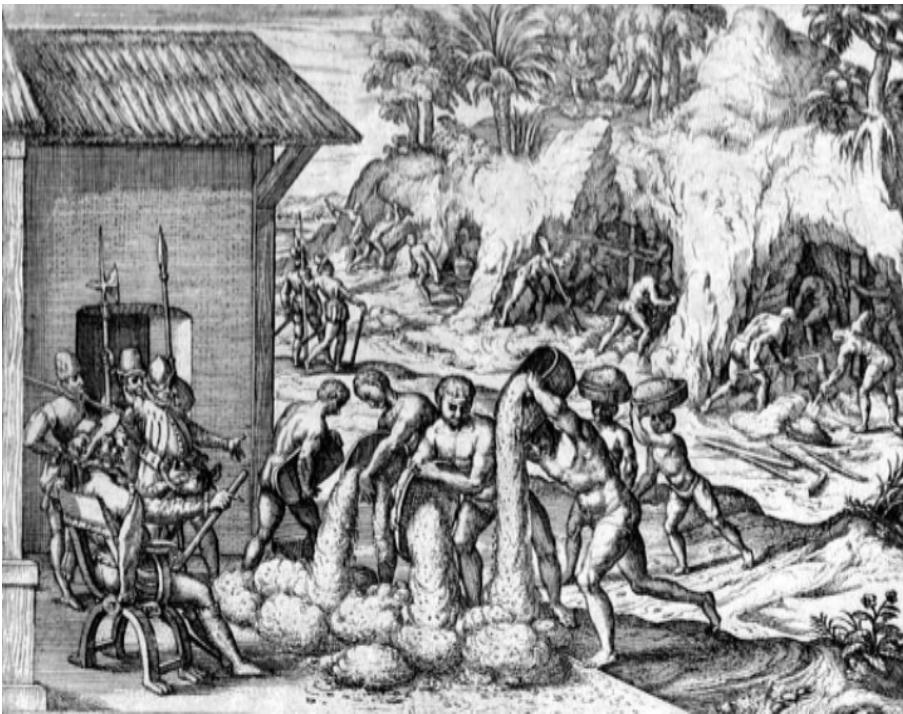
The Holocaust of Columbus alone killed four million people on San Salvador in four years. The genocide did not stop after this first four million people; They were only the beginning.

During Columbus time in Haiti, he and his men hunted the Taino Indians for sport, beating, raping, torturing, killing, and then using the Indian bodies as food for their hunting dogs.



The missionary Bartolome de Las Casas recorded what he witnessed. Bartolome de Las Casas was born in Seville, Spain, in 1474. In 1502 he went to Cuba, and for his military services there was given an Encomienda, an estate that included the services of the Indians living on it.

In about 1513 he had a change of heart and was ordained a Christian priest (probably the first ordination in the Americas), and in 1514 he renounced all claim on his Indian serfs. During the following seven years he made several voyages to Spain to find support for a series of new towns in which Spaniard and Indian would live together in peace and equality.



In 1523 he became a Dominican friar and disappeared for a time from public controversy. In 1540 he returned to Spain

and was a force behind the passage in 1542 of laws prohibiting Indian slavery and safeguarding the rights of the Indians.

He was made Bishop of Chiapas in Guatemala, and returned to the Americas in 1544 to implement the new laws, but he met considerable resistance, and in 1547 he returned to Spain, where he devoted the rest of his life to speaking and writing on behalf of the Indians.

He is chiefly remembered for his Brief Report on the Destruction of the Indians (or Tears of the Indians), a fervid and perhaps exaggerated account of the atrocities of the Spanish conquerors against the Indians.

The book was widely read and widely translated, and the English version was used to stir up English feeling against the Spanish as a cruel race whom England ought to beware of, and whose colonies in the Americas would be better off in English hands. Sounds too familiar? Sounds like the, English only, B. I A. Bureau of Indian Affairs.

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